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BRITAIN CREATES CENTRAL PLANNING AUTHORITY

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THE AGRICULTURAL RESOURCES OF MOZAMBIQUE . . . .

By Bertha Merdian*

The Colony of Mozambique, also known as Portuguese East Africa, is essentially an agricultural and pastoral country. Tropical and subtropical products are grown, and others not of domestic origin pass across this territory enroute to the sea, thus contributing to the wealth of its ports. Mozambique lies in the region originally developed by the hoe, and much of the agriculture is still primitive. The land is generally very fertile, but aside from native cultivation, only a small part of the total area has been fully utilized. The agricultural progress thus far made is the result primarily of extensive large-scale production for export during the past 30 or 40 years.

PHYSICAL BACKGROUND

Mozambique occupies approximately 300,000 square miles of the sloping coast of southeast Africa, between 10° and 27° south latitude. In area and coastal contour it resembles our South Atlantic seaboard from Virginia to the lower tip of Florida. Irregular in shape, its depth inland extends about 400 miles in the north, but in the extreme south it narrows to about 50 miles. A broad wedge of territory penetrates more deeply into the interior along the valley of the Zambezi, and includes over 500 miles of the river's lower course.

To some extent the frontiers are determined by physical features, but otherwise artificial lines are drawn. Mozambique has frontage on the sea throughout its length of about 1,500 miles. On the landward sides it is surrounded by Tanganyika, Nyasaland, the Rhodesias, Transvaal, Swaziland, and Natal. Its northern boundary follows the Rovuma river from the mountains east of Lake Nyasa to the sea. To the west are Lake Nyasa, the Shire and Mlange Highlands, and, except for the Zambezi depression, its boundary southward follows the lofty escarpment which divides the African highlands from the coastal slope.

The surface features may be described broadly as alluvial mud flats and sand dunes along the coast; in the north, a middle shelf of no great altitude; and higher elevations and rocky mountains along the western boundary. Island-hills (kopjes) rise abruptly out of the rolling surface of the middle shelf. These isolated elevations, which are characteristic of the African continent, occur in a variety of forms and sizes. The higher regions along the west have a mean elevation of about 3,500 feet, but the short mountain ranges rise to 5,000 feet or more. Namuli, one of the dominant mountains in this part of Africa, reaches an altitude of 8,000 feet.

The soil of the low coastlands and the larger river valleys is rich alluvial; in other areas it is more or less sandy loam. The western mountains are of igneous rock, and often are not covered with sufficient soil to support full vegetation. Surface rocks are entirely absent from the coastal flats.

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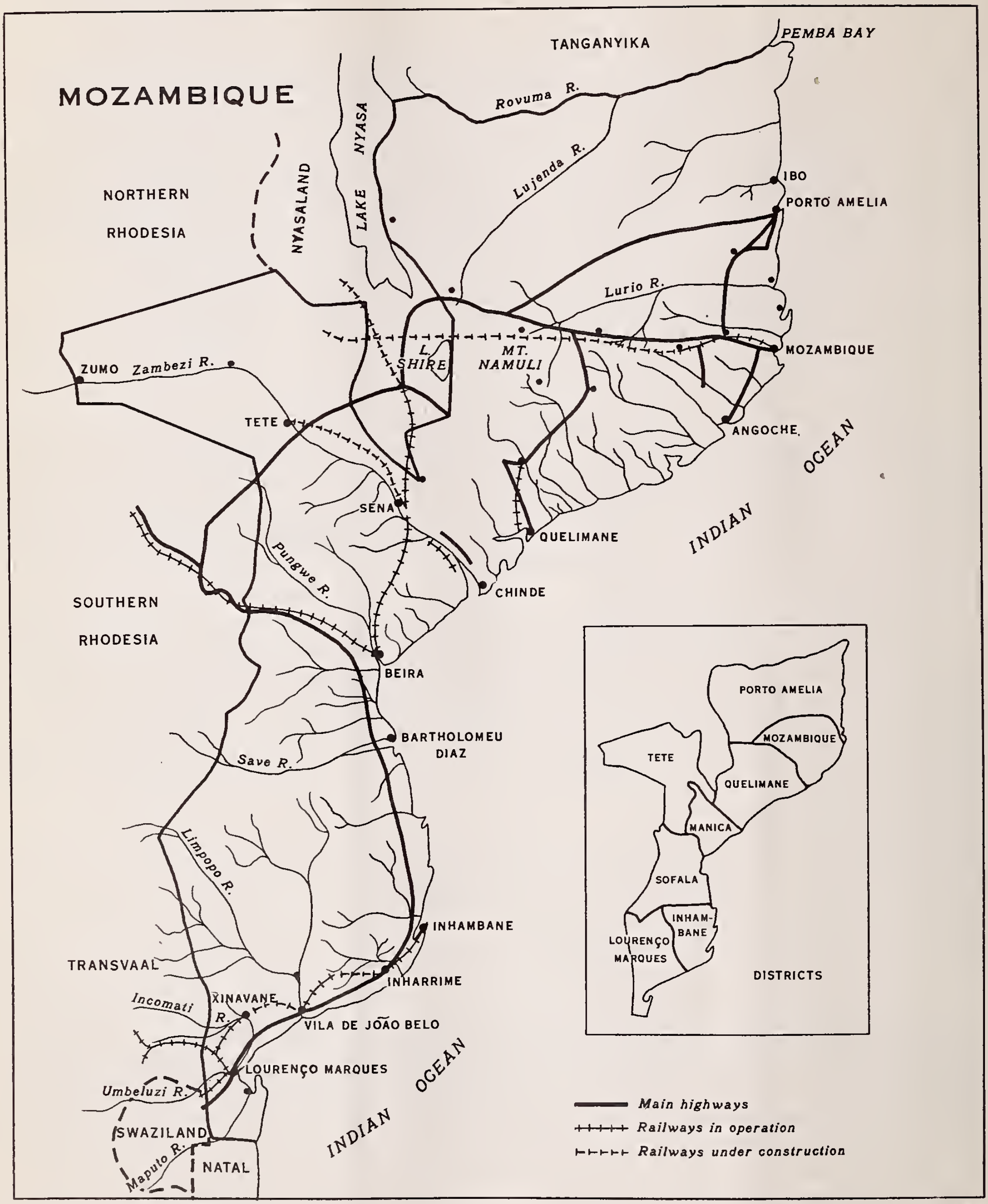

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FIGURE 1.– Map of Mozambique showing transportation facilities.

Climate and Vegetation

Except for its extreme southern part, Mozambique lies in the Tropics. The temperature of the coastal region is more or less constant, having an average mean of about 85° F. in the north and 70° in the south. December and January are the mid-summer months. In the lower river valleys, especially the Zambezi, the climate is particularly hot and humid, reaching 105° and above in the malaria-laden swamplands. Tropical conditions prevail along the coast as far south roughly as Inhambane where the subtropical atmosphere is indicated by the lower limit of the luxuriant growth of coconut palms. In the western regions where higher altitudes modify the equatorial climate, greater atmospheric differences occur. An average annual temperature of 60° is not uncommon.

The mean air temperature of the Colony varies between about 68° and 80° F.; the annual rainfall, from 20 to 70 inches; and the percentage of humidity, between 60 and 80 percent. Frost is rare, but the temperature may fall sufficiently low in the extreme south to retard the growth of some plants and to prevent fruit trees and coconut palms from producing normally.

November to March is generally the period of heaviest precipitation. The western highlands, the Zambezi delta, and the neighborhood of Beira along the coast receive the most abundant rains. Dry areas of 20 to 30 inches of rainfall occur in the north central part, in the south, and in the Tete district in the west. Torrential rains following prolonged dry seasons often result in devastating floods, especially in the Zambezi and the Limpopo river valleys.

The whole of the coastal region of Mozambique, for 100 miles inland, may be described as a continuous tropical forest. Broad-leaved evergreens predominate, with rather heavy undergrowth as might be expected in a light sandy loam. However, much of this area has been denuded through the rotational method of cultivation practiced by the natives. Food has always taken first place in their economy, and timbers not contributing directly to their needs were cleared. Coconut and other food-yielding trees, on the other hand, were cultivated.

From the central part of the Colony southward, the vegetation is largely semiarid, with a wide variety of shrubs and grasses. Trees are neither large nor numerous, except in the river valleys. Landolphia and other rubber-yielding vines and creepers grow abundantly throughout the region. The mafurreia tree *(Trichilia emetica)* abounds, especially in the sandy soils. Its seed yields an oil commercially known as mafura. In the higher altitudes there are numerous temperate zone timbers suitable for building and cabinetmaking.

Population

Mozambique is a sparsely inhabited country with an average density of only about 13 persons per square mile. The population of approximately five million is predominantly native. Non-natives represent less than five percent, half of whom are Europeans; the remaining are Arabs, Indians, Goanese, Chinese and other Asiatics, and mixed races. The district of Mozambique[1] with over a million inhabitants, and Quelimane with nearly that number, are the most densely populated areas. The principal cities are on the coast. Lourenço Marques, the capital and largest port city, has a cosmopolitan population of over 47,000, and during the African winter, May to

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[1] Mozambique, the name used first to designate the Island, was also given to the town, the district, and extended to the whole of the Portuguese possession of East Africa.

August, its beaches and resort areas attract tourists from the highlands. Beira, the second largest city and port, is predominantly Portuguese.

The white population is concentrated in the port areas and upland districts, as climatic conditions generally are not conducive to European settlement. Arab and Indian traders were well established in the coastal regions long before the arrival of the Portuguese, and since then their activities have continued intermittently. They are not adversely affected by the climate or the more primitive living conditions, and therefore it has not been difficult for them to eliminate the white man as a small trader along the coast. The Goanese, most of whom have come direct from Portuguese India, are employed at the ports, in the customs, or other government offices.

The native tribes belong to the extensive Bantu race found throughout Central Africa. Some are employed by the white, Indian, and mixed races in agriculture, industry, transportation, and domestic service. A contingent of between 50,000 and 100,000 has been employed steadily in the mines of the interior. The great majority, however, live in their kraals or huts, in tribal villages, raising their own food, and gathering crops for sale. Their population is more or less shifting, and only on the rich soils of the larger river valleys is there any approach to fixity of tenure.

As far as the natives are concerned, the Colony is practically self-contained. Native consumption absorbs a large part of its own produce. Some crops grow wild, others are cultivated, but only occasionally is it necessary to import food. Livestock is ground-fed except in the driest seasons, so there is little demand for hay or grain for stall-feeding. Under these circumstances the supply for local consumption is of far less importance than it would be in an industrial community.

The administration of the Colony is vested in a Council consisting of a Governor-General, appointed by the Portuguese government, and the heads of the various departments. To a certain degree there is native jurisdiction in local matters. The districts of Lourenço Marques, Inhambane, Quelimane, Tete, Mozambique, and Porto Amelia,[2] the former territory of Nyasa, are known as the State-administered area. The territories of Manica and Sofala, which until recently were chartered under the Mozambique Company, have now reverted to State control (fig. 1).

THE ECONOMY OF MOZAMBIQUE

The principal aspects of Mozambique's economic importance are agricultural production for export, and port development in response to the commercial needs of the interior. The income from a considerable labor force supplied to the Rand mines of South Africa also has been an important factor. The detrimental effect of this loss of man-hours to the further development of the Colony's own resources has, however, been realized.

The best farming areas lie in the river valleys and within comparatively short distances from the coast. Even with primitive methods of cultivation this land produces excellent corn, sugar, oilseeds, vegetables, rice, coconuts, and fruit. Native timbers and hardwoods are available for construction work, building, and furniture making.

Under the present economic organization of the Colony, highly processed and manufactured articles are imported. Industrial activity is confined chiefly to the preparation of agricultural produce for export, and to the making of bricks, cement, furniture, soap, beer and soft drinks, cigarettes, and the extraction of vegetable oils.

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[2] As in the case of Mozambique, names used to designate districts are also used for cities.

By virtue of its geographic position, Mozambique is the foreshore of a vast African hinterland, and during the past quarter century a close economic relationship has developed between the two regions. By far the greatest source of revenue for the Colony has been the transit trade for the inland areas, which in the peak year 1938 amounted to over 170 million dollars (table 1). In this respect the ports of Lourenço Marques and Beira occupy positions analogous to Rotterdam and Antwerp insofar as they are dependent on a foreign country for much of their maritime trade.

Table 1.–*Foreign trade of Mozambique, by value*

CLASSIFICATION	VALUE				
	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
	1,000 dollars	*1,000 dollars*	*1,000 dollars*	*1,000 dollars*	*1,000 dollars*
Exports[1]	11,545	16,361	12,269	10,508	9,308
Imports for consumption	13,436	19,385	21,700	23,787	16,250
Transit trade, indirect	7,518	11,394	10,015	10,366	10,898
Transit trade, direct, including transshipments	53,570	167,724	170,811	137,123	147,407

[1] To this item could be added the earnings of native labor recruited for work in the Rand gold mines.

Estatística do Comércio Externo e da Navegação, Colónia de Moçambique.

The maintenance of a customs office of the Union of South Africa at these ports facilitates the handling of through-goods traffic. The frontier customs deal principally with passenger service, as under the Transvaal-Mozambique Convention of 1909 and subsequent agreements, practically free trade in the natural products of the two countries exists.

FACTORS AFFECTING AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT

Communication Facilities

The Mozambique coastline is a succession of beaches, bays, and headlands, varied with islands and river deltas. It is low, with loose coral rocks fringing the shore. Coral reefs lie a mile or more offshore as far north as Pemba Bay where the outer reefs extend from 8 to 13 miles from the mainland. Of the numerous ports and harbors, Lourenço Marques and Beira are the most important. Over half the movement at Lourenço Marques is connected with British shipping; the percentage of foreign cargo passing through Beira is slightly lower.

Lourenço Marques port is entered through wide deep channels between sandbars. Its modern ferro-concrete wharf, nearly a mile in length, has berthing accommodations for 12 ocean-going steamers. It is equipped with electric cranes of from 3 to 60-ton capacity, and has commodious storage warehouses. The largest out-transit trade is in copper ore and regulus, tin, and asbestos. With the exception of sugar, exports of native produce are minor, and include chiefly mangrove bark, vegetables, oil seeds, hides and skins, wax, and whale oil. Goods used in connection with the mining industry constitute most of the in-transit cargo, namely timber, iron, and steel manufactures, electrical and mining equipment and machinery.

As the only large-scale outlet for the vast coal regions of the Transvaal and Swaziland, the port of Lourenço Marques has become the center of a coaling activity competing for the export and bunkering trade of the Indian Ocean. The modern plant of 1,000-ton capacity can receive the largest coal trucks in use on the South African railways. The quantity of coal entered in any year, however, has not greatly exceeded a million tons.

Beira, the fourth busiest port of southern Africa, ranks after Durban, Capetown, and Lourenço Marques in gross tonnage handled. It is linked with the Benguela railway through the systems of the Belgian Congo and Angola, and thus forms the eastern terminus of the trans-African route which begins at Lobito Bay, Angola, on the Atlantic. Mining in the African interior has been the chief reason for the commercial development of Beira. However, large quantities of farm produce from interior Africa as well as from Mozambique are exported through this port. Here also are landed a variety of imports to supply the needs of the mines, plantations, farms, and cities.

Chinde is situated at the mouth of the Zambezi. As the receiving point for navigation up the river, it serves as an emporium from which the surrounding territory draws its supplies. It is also the outlet for sugar and other produce from the extensive Zambesi valley.

Considerable coastwise shipping is necessitated by the lack of ample land communications. Small boats and barges move native produce between the maritime and river ports at irregular intervals, as do also Arab dhows and other small craft which land goods and pick up out-cargoes at wharves not used by the larger ships.

Much of Central Africa south of the Congo-Zambezi watershed drains eastward into Mozambique. For the purpose of navigation other than by small boats, the rivers are of relatively little value after entering Mozambique territory. With the exception of the Zambezi, none can be ascended by steamers for any considerable distance from the coast, as entrance frequently is blocked by sand bars. The rivers do afford inland transportation to some extent, especially during the rainy seasons.

The principal drainage systems are the Rovuma river in the north; the Zambezi which virtually bisects Mozambique; the Pungwe, entering the sea at Beira; and the Save, Limpopo, Incomati, Umbeluzi, and Maputa in the southern half of the Colony. From the mouth of the Zambezi northward for a few hundred miles, the coastal region is cut by numerous tidal rivers and streams, often forming lakes and lagoons. Drainage of some of this swampland has already added to the rich alluvial land particularly suitable for large-scale farming.

Mozambique has over 1,000 miles of railways, built primarily to connect the mining and agricultural areas of interior Africa with the principal seaports. Over half are standard gauge. The most important lines are the one from the port of Lourenço Marques to the Transvaal border, and two leading from Beira, one of which serves the Rhodesias, and the other, Nyasaland. The line from Lumbo to the Nyasaland border, now only partially completed, taps one of the most productive agricultural regions of the Colony. Construction has been started on a line leading into the coal regions of the Tete district (see fig. 1).

Motor roads feed the main railways, but many remote areas are still inaccessible except by native carrier. There is a general scarcity of draft animals because of the prevalence of the tsetse fly, so destructive to livestock. Except in the southern districts, wagons and similar farm conveyances are not in general use.

Rail, motor, and air transportation are under government jurisdiction. Commercial aviation was begun about 1930, and within a few years an air service was in operation throughout the Colony. Known by the name Deta, an abbreviation for the Division of Exploitation of Transport by Air, this service connects with the air lines of Central and South Africa.

Land Policy

Although Portuguese influence in East Africa dates from the end of the 15th century, little economic progress was made until about 1900. To understand this lapse in development it is necessary to consider the land policy of that period. Early occupation by the Portuguese was confined to a few coastal trading posts. Such towns as Inhambane, Quelimane, and Mozambique have been in existence for over 400 years. Numerous unsuccessful attempts on the part of the Portuguese government to induce colonization led to the adoption of the so-called prazo system, whereby large tracts of land, with virtually unlimited jurisdiction, were granted to Portuguese settlers. Profits were derived from taxation of native land use and slave traffic, rather than from any permanent agricultural development. Jurisdiction over the prazos passed from generation to generation, leaving the government only nominally in control. Actually, the system became a deterring factor, and the country generally remained in a chaotic state.

European development of Africa through the medium of the chartered company, late in the 19th century, endangered Portuguese control in East Africa. Unable to finance large-scale enterprise at that time, the government chartered the companies of Mozambique and Nyasa. Terms of the charters provided for progressive stages of development, including the building of transportation facilities, the clearing and cultivation of land, and the housing requirements for native labor. These companies had civil jurisdiction; the Mozambique Company, of approximately 65,000 square miles, and the Nyasa Company, of 73,000 square miles.

Prazos then in existence continued to operate, and some of them later developed into important agricultural and industrial companies. For example, the Companhia do Boro became an important factor in the coconut industry, and the Companhia da Zambezia engaged in large-scale general farming, stockraising, and the production of sisal.

The charter of the Nyasa company expired in 1929, that of the Mozambique Company in July 1942, and in each instance jurisdiction reverted back to the Colonial Government. For all practical purposes, much of the land formerly held under the prazos likewise is now under State control.

A revised land law in operation since 1918 provides for permanent ownership by natives, in accordance with certain stipulations with regard to improvements. Such land does not, however, carry mineral rights, and timber rights are subject to regulation.

The Six-Year Development Plan

In 1937, the Ministry of Colonies in Lisbon decided that the prosperous financial situation within Mozambique justified an extensive program of economic development. A special fund was allocated for the execution of certain large-scale public works, including the establishment of agricultural and cattle-breeding stations in irrigated zones and in other localities; irrigation of the Limpopo and Umbeluzi river valleys in the fruit region; the extension of the Mozambique and Tete railways; a survey of the port of Nacala as the terminus of the Mozambique railway, and construction of highways connecting with that port; and improvement of main roads, particularly those serving port and railway lines.

PRESENT AND POTENTIAL AGRICULTURE

The agricultural potentialities of Mozambique are considerable. Its soil is suited to the cultivation of a wide variety of tropical and subtropical products, or could be brought under production through the extension of irrigation. However, less than 3 percent of the total land area is now under crops.

Farming is carried on by natives, by European colonists, and by companies with national, foreign, and mixed capital. Large-scale operations are concerned primarily with the cultivation of crops that require treatment by machinery, namely, coconuts, sisal, and sugarcane, which together account for more than half the cultivated area. Cotton, coconuts, and peanuts are grown for export by both natives and large operators. Native labor generally does not understand the use of complicated machinery, and relatively little farm equipment is found except near the trading centers along the coast. The exact acreage under native agriculture is not known, because it is still in a stage that precludes an accurate compilation of statistics.

Irrigation is necessary in some parts, particularly in the south. Crops so grown include sugarcane (43,500 acres), citrus fruit and bananas (800), and miscellaneous (4,200).

The government maintains three experimental farms, the largest of which covers 1,000 acres on the Umbeluzi river near Lourenço Marques. The others are near the city of Inhambane and Vila de João Bela (Chai-Chai) the river port of the Limpopo. Work has been started on an irrigation and flood control project in the Limpopo valley, which will bring approximately 75,000 acres into production.

Native Food Crops

For the most part the natives cultivate only small patches of land. Their main foods are corn, rice, manioc or cassava, cashews, peanuts, and fruit. Surpluses of these and other crops are sold or bartered through small local storekeepers, banyan traders, or the larger agricultural companies. The total volume of minor native produce entering into commerce is quite large, particularly of corn, oleaginous seeds and nuts, and cotton.

Corn is the principal native food, and is grown by almost every family. It is also an important export item. The largest commercial acreages occur in the chartered territories of Manica and Sofala where as many as 2,000 continuous acres may be seen planted to corn. The districts of Quelimane and Mozambique also are substantial corn producers. Shipments are handled chiefly through Beira, where the corn is graded and certified for export. The surplus has varied from year to year; in 1936 exports amounted to over 43 million pounds (767,850 bushels), but were considerably lower in other years.

Rice is a common food item, not only of the natives and the Indian and Arab elements, but of the white population as well. The annual crop is sufficient to meet only about half the consumption needs. It is grown chiefly in the coastal lowlands where irrigation is readily available from the numerous rivers and streams. In quality it is considered of fairly good grade.

Manioc is grown almost exclusively for local consumption. Several factories for processing flour, tapioca, and starch are located in the southern part of the Colony.

Crops Grown for Export

Areas under cultivation and yearly production statistics are available only for crops grown on holdings on a non-native character. Of these sugar, corn, fruit, sisal, coconuts, and other oil-yielding seeds and nuts rank highest in volume. To obtain a truer picture of both native and non-native production, statistics of export (table 5) should be considered together with those obtainable for production (tables 2 and 3).

Sugar.- The cultivation of sugarcane is one of the oldest industries of Mozambique, but commercial development did not begin until about 1893, when 600 tons of sugar were harvested. The peak production of over 93,000 tons occurred 40 years later (1933).

Favorable conditions of climate and soil of the low-lying districts where the sugar companies operate favor rapid growth. The cane matures in from 18 to 20 months, but may be cut at intervals of from 12 to 16 months. In the Zambezi valley 4 or 5 ratoon crops are cut, but with diminishing yields. Farther south, in the Incomati valley, a maximum of 8 crops may be obtained from one planting if sufficiently irrigated. The average yield is about 24 tons per acre. The harvest and crushing season extends from May to October. Cutting begins when the rainy period has ended, and crushing when dry weather is certain.

TABLE 2.–*Acreage by principal crops of Mozambique,*[1] *1929-30 to 1938-39*

PRINCIPAL CROPS	1929-30	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39
	1,000 acres	*1,000 acres*	*1,000 acres*	*1,000 acres*
Coconuts	166	147	145	152
Sisal	100	110	105	122
Corn	127	56	65	77
Sugarcane	70	58	50	54
Fruit	11	15	15	17
Beans (except castor)	63	12	13	14
Cotton	49	36	16	14
Cashew nuts	2	5	5	12
Peanuts	16	6	4	3
Manioc	10	3	3	3
Kapok	4	9	8	9
Sorghum	6	1	2	1
Mafura seed (mafurreira tree)	5	4	2	2
Sesame	8	2	2	2
Castor beans	2	(2)	(2)	(2)
Rice	3	1	1	1
Potatoes	2	2	2	2
Sweetpotatoes	(2)	(2)	(2)	(2)
Coffee	6	5	5	4
Tea	1	2	5	6
Tobacco	2	1	1	1
Total	653	475	449	496

[1] Include only holdings of a non-native character.

[2] Less than 500.

Anuário Estatístico, Colónia de Moçambique.

Sugar production is almost entirely a plantation industry. The principal growers are the Sena Sugar Estates, Ltd., the Incomati Estates Ltd., and the Companhia Colonial do Buzi, all of whom are vital factors in the trade and commerce of Mozambique. They are large-scale consumers as well as producers and exporters, and their requirements of local produce and imported merchandise include a wide variety of articles for native consumption and for factory and plant operation.

The importance of these undertakings in the economic development of the Colony is indicated by their extent and activity. The Sena Sugar Estates, Ltd., for example, has a yearly production capacity of about 80,000 tons. It extends for 60 miles on either side of the Zambezi above its delta. Plants and equipment include two refineries and four fully equipped modern factories, 230 miles of medium and light railway tracks, considerable rolling stock, and river craft. It employs about 500 Europeans and 12,000 natives. The production capacity of other sugar companies varies between about 15,000 and 20,000 tons.

Sugar exports averaged nearly 134 million pounds (67,000 short tons) between 1936-40. There has been relatively little carry-over. Consumption within Mozambique and exports to Portugal normally account for about three-fourths of the crop. Exports to the United Kingdom have been substantial; those to other countries, chiefly Belgium and India, have varied.

TABLE 3.–*Agricultural production of Mozambique by principal crops,*[1] *1929-30 to 1938-39*

PRINCIPAL CROPS	1929-30	1936-37	1937-38	1938-39
	1,000 pounds	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*
Sugar	175,874	165,715	144,917	137,907
Corn	90,333	44,396	58,222	52,480
Coconuts	11,245	[2]141,048	[2]159,519	[2]156,189
Copra	32,563	53,988	59,897	56,629
Fresh fruit:				
Bananas	48,486	[3]15,934	24,729	27,948
Oranges	9,065	8,097	5,194	15,953
Tangerines	490	2,769	2,807	1,884
Other fruit	4,929	7,864	15,297	9,446
Sisal	23,224	48,702	49,679	41,693
Manioc	9,238	3,761	3,109	1,982
Potatoes	2,797	4,988	5,310	5,024
Sweetpotatoes	817	477	548	475
Beans, edible	8,646	2,570	3,201	4,186
Peanuts, shelled	3,922	1,355	1,031	780
Cotton, ginned	3,284	1,420	1,013	382
Sorghum	2,739	388	1,325	2,279
Tea	195	976	1,233	1,145
Rice, cleaned	1,125	580	614	706
Cashew nuts	235	783	625	764
Sesame	884	227	255	199
Mafura, seed	869	89	202	295
Castor beans	116	38	36	33
Kapok	13	217	207	269
Coffee, green	79	63	42	57
Sunflower seed	1,051	-	9	17
Tobacco	633	312	[4]256	[4]524
Total	432,852	506,757	539,277	519,246

[1] Statistics refer to holdings of a non-native character.

[2] Quantity in thousand units.

[3] Crop damaged by flood.

[4] Includes tobacco in rolls.

Anuário Estatístico, Colónia de Moçambique.

Oleaginous Vegetable Seeds and Nuts.- Oil-yielding plants grow abundantly in Mozambique. and following sugar account for the largest volume of exports.

Copra.- Mozambique is an important world source of copra. This native industry has existed for hundreds of years, but before large-scale farming was begun, coconut palm areas consisted of small groves near port settlements on the coastal lowlands. Two of the most extensive plantations now have over a million trees each. Coconut groves line the coast of Mozambique from the Save River northward; the heart of the production area is in the lower Zambezi valley.

Mozambique copra is kiln-dried to a large extent, and is of slightly lower quality than the sun-dried product. However, hot-air dryers are said to be producing satisfactory results.

Coconuts are used locally for food and oil. Exports of copra reached a peak of 85 million pounds in 1938. France, the Netherlands, Italy, Germany, and South Africa normally have been the chief destinations.

Cashew Nuts.- Cashew trees grow in scattered stands throughout Mozambique. The nuts are said to have an excellent flavor. Large quantities are consumed as native food, but the yearly surplus has been substantial. Over 88 million pounds were exported in 1937, the highest year.

The crop is shipped as harvested, that is, between the months of November and March. Exports are entirely of unshelled nuts; no oil is extracted locally. Normally the nuts are exported to India for shelling and roasting, and later shipped to consumer markets, chiefly the United States.

Peanuts.- Peanuts thrive extremely well in Mozambique. Natives cultivate patches here and there over unsettled areas, but larger acreages are grown by white farmers. Only a small portion of the native crop reaches the market, however, as domestic consumption is high. A good quality oil is produced in the numerous small plants along the coast and in the large oil mills on the outskirts of Lourenço Marques.

Peanut exports have varied from a peak of nearly 83 million pounds in 1936 to less than 29 million in 1938. Shipments have gone chiefly to France, Germany, the Netherlands, Belgium, Denmark, and the Union of South Africa.

Other Oil Seeds.- Castor beans, sesame, mafura, sunflower, and other oil seeds are gathered by the natives and sold in small quantities to traders or processors. An edible oil of fair quality is produced locally, but the largest plants are operated by exporting firms. Native consumption is about 20 percent of the annual production, the remainder is exported, chiefly to South Africa. Mafura seed yields an oil of high stearin content; the soap industry of Marseilles has been the only important consumer of the seed or the oil.

Vegetable Fibers.- Fiber production in Mozambique consists largely of sisal and cotton. Only small quantities of kapok, hemp, and other fibers are grown.

Sisal.- Mozambique ranks third among the world's largest sisal producers. The most extensive plantations of from 8 to 10 million plants are located in the Zambezi valley, and are equipped to handle all processing operations from harvest to the point of export. A long, thin fiber is obtained. Grading is done chiefly by native labor. This is almost exclusively an export crop, varying between 25 and 53 million pounds (12,500 and 26,500 short tons) yearly. Belgium, Germany, France, the Netherlands, and Canada have been the chief markets for sisal; Belgium and Portugal for sisal waste.

Cotton.- The cotton industry is as yet of only secondary importance. Commercial production was begun in the southern part of the Colony during the first quarter of the present century, when expansion was encouraged by favorable world cotton prices. The period of prosperity was short, however, and crop failures, plant diseases and pests, together with a drop in prices, greatly reduced the cotton acreage. In an effort to maintain the industry and at least partially supply the consumption needs of Portugal, the government guaranteed remunerative prices to growers. Prices to be paid to native growers were fixed at the beginning of the season. Concessionnaires operating cotton gins were required to supply native farmers with seed and to instruct them in the cultivation and handling of the crop.

By 1930, both native and large-scale cotton production was on the upgrade, and this trend continued. The market value of the crop has been lowered by lack of uniformity in staple length, said to be due to irregular rainfall. Little raw cotton is consumed in the Colony. Exports have varied between 11 and 19 million pounds (23,000 to 39,750 bales), have gone principally to Portugal.

Fruit.- Compared with South Africa and Rhodesia, Mozambique is a minor producer of citrus fruit. Added plantings in recent years, however, indicate a substantial increase in the crop within the next decade. The total fruit acreage not including scattered trees or small native orchards amounted to about 17,000 in 1938-39 (latest official).

The largest fruit areas are in the southern districts. About 4,000 acres of citrus orchards - oranges, grapefruit, and lemons, have been developed in the Incomati and Umbeluzi river valleys, within easy access of the pre-cooling plant at the port of Lourenço Marques. This is also the large banana area. Other fruits include mangoes, guavas, pineapples, papayas, avocados, persimmons, and peaches. Lemons and oranges grow wild in some parts of Mozambique. The hardy lemon trees in particular are useful as stock for grafting, and are said to produce a fine grade of fruit. Irrigation is necessary in the fruit areas, not only for consistent harvests but also for normal tree development.

The annual fruit crop varies, but normally amounts to between 50 and 60 million pounds, almost half of which are bananas. Fruit is a popular native food, and between 40 and 60 percent of the crop is consumed locally. Export movements of citrus fruits begin by April or May; the peak usually occurs in June, or just ahead of the South African fruit season. Banana shipments have gone chiefly to the Union of South Africa; citrus fruits, to Great Britain.

Livestock and Livestock Products

Bantu tribes generally combine agriculture with cattle herding, in fact, attachment to their cattle is so pronounced that it is often regarded as the most characteristic element of their culture.

The livestock industry of Mozambique has been greatly retarded by the prevalence of the tsetse fly, East Coast Fever and other diseases. Grazing lands exist throughout much of the Colony, at least during the rainy season, but cattle raising on a large scale has involved too great a risk. It has been most successful in the southern districts where these handicaps are less common. In an effort to eradicate diseases and pests among livestock, the government has required periodic dipping in arsenical solution. Numerous public dipping tanks have been provided by the Veterinary Department, and also by private stock owners.

In outlying urban areas beef and milk cattle numbers have increased and are gradually being improved through importations from abroad. However, any expansion will very likely be directed toward supplying transport animals, and only incidentally to provide meat or milk for consumption. Oxen, donkeys, and mules are the only native means of transportation, as there are relatively few horses (table 4).

TABLE 4.–*Livestock and poultry production of Mozambique*

KIND	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
	Thousands	*Thousands*	*Thousands*	*Thousands*	*Thousands*
Cattle	557.9	544.1	553.5	536.9	546.8
Goats	250.6	277.4	270.8	269.9	241.3
Sheep	88.3	84.8	85.4	86.6	75.5
Hogs	78.2	81.3	72.3	62.9	57.7
Horses	.2	.1	.2	.1	.1
Donkeys	5.2	6.1	5.4	5.1	4.7
Mules	.1	.1	.1	.1	.1
Total	980.5	993.9	987.7	961.6	926.2
Poultry[1]	18.0	20.3	18.8	19.8	(2)

[1] The egg production is estimated at approximately 1 million.

[2] Not available.

Anuario Estatístico, Colónia de Moçambique, and International Institute of Agriculture Yearbook.

Local meat requirements, confined chiefly to the urban white population, are only partially met by imports. Between 500,000 and 700,000 pounds of meat are supplied yearly, chiefly from South Africa.

Forest Products

With the exception of mangrove and wattle bark for tanning, and a few hard woods, not much economic use has been made of the forest resources of the Colony. Difficulty of transport due to a scarcity of draft animals in remote areas and the lack of waterways suitable for moving heavy logs, have retarded the exploitation of timbered areas. Wood for fuel, railway construction, and pit props for mining purposes, has consumed the largest available quantities.

Red and white mangrove bark is found abundantly in the bays and inlets along about two-thirds of the Mozambique coast. Natives strip the bark from the trees and transport it to treating plants or to points of export. The United States is one of the chief consumers of tanning bark from Mozambique. Portugal, Italy, and the Netherlands also have imported small quantities.

The history of commercial rubber growing in Mozambique is largely one of hardships and failures. There has been only little success in the efforts of individuals and companies to make the Colony an important world source of this valuable product.

Irregular rainfall and occasional long periods of drought prevent extensive growth of the Hevea tree; the Manihot tree is said to grow more readily. Varieties of the Landolphia vine exist in large numbers throughout the forest areas. Collection of latex from this source is a slow process, however. The vines growing from the soil climb trees and hang down from the branches. When tapped, the latex exudes slowly; it coagulates on exposure to air, and then may be rolled on a stick. The potential rubber supply of Mozambique is not known, but recent production of dry rubber has approximated 5,000 pounds.[3] However, a considerably larger quantity no doubt could be obtained if a sufficiently large labor supply were available for this purpose.

TABLE 5.—*Domestic exports from Mozambique, 1936-40*

PRINCIPAL COMMODITIES	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
	1,000 pounds	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*
Sugar	138,309	162,052	144,339	117,961	106,696
Copra	75,385	75,893	85,048	73,443	57,208
Cashew nuts	62,517	88,293	56,822	64,167	69,876
Peanuts	82,902	57,996	28,122	49,357	28,663
Sisal	44,875	49,676	53,800	38,295	28,000
Corn	43,386	3,735	2,205	515	13,997
Fresh fruit, principally bananas	40,052	22,289	9,783	21,604	20,037
Cotton, raw	10,629	18,544	19,656	14,435	11,434
Coal	18,050	16,733	16,044	13,636	17,549
Railroad cross ties	16,165	32,741	25,935	19,293	25,331
Mangrove bark	4,079	2,288	1,631	3,724	1,706
Mecrusse and Umbilla (local woods)	6,223	1,816	2,592	4,185	5,664
Chanfuta, ebony, and other wood	3,388	6,230	5,791	4,435	4,377
Sorghum and pearl millet	2,212	(1)	7	-	467
Oil cake	3,330	1,691	2,158	3,400	2,353
Cotton seed	(1)	1,121	3,970	2,101	37
Castor beans	1,901	2,691	1,971	3,856	1,774
Mafura seed	1,116	727	677	2,375	921
Vegetables, oleaginous, inedible	974	910	1,345	4,111	1,620
Tea	698	875	1,119	1,018	1,306
Beans, (edible)	3,274	721	1,149	3,409	1,426
Total	559,465	547,022	464,164	445,320	400,442

[1] Less than 1,000.
Estatística do Comércio Externo e da Navegação, Colónia de Moçambique.

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[3] International Yearbook of Agricultural Statistics.

TABLE 6.–*Trade of Mozambique with principal countries, by percentage of total value*[1]

CLASSIFICATION	STATE ADMINISTERED AREA					CHARTERED AREA				
	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
Exports, domestic and nationalized:[2]										
Portugal	21.7	24.6	33.7	31.9	50.1	56.0	52.3	54.7	46.8	50.9
Portuguese Colonies	1.9	1.9	2.5	4.7	5.2	4.1	7.1	7.6	11.4	12.6
Foreign countries	76.4	73.5	63.8	63.4	44.7	39.9	40.6	37.7	41.8	36.5
Total exports	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Imports for consumption:										
Portugal	28.1	31.1	23.4	27.2	31.4	13.5	12.7	10.3	12.9	18.7
Portuguese Colonies	1.5	2.0	1.1	1.8	2.6	3.2	2.5	1.9	2.1	2.9
Foreign countries	70.4	66.9	75.5	71.0	66.0	83.3	84.8	87.8	85.0	78.4
Total imports	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

[1] Including monetary and fiduciary valuations.

[2] Nationalized, include commodities of foreign origin which were changed from the form in which they were imported.

Estatística do Comércio Externo e da Navegação, Colónia de Moçambique.

TABLE 7.–*Imports for consumption into Mozambique,*[1] *1936-40*

PRINCIPAL ITEMS	1936	1937	1938	1939	1940
	1,000 pounds	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*	*1,000 pounds*
Coal	240,907	237,699	288,109	275,324	285,694
Cement	18,588	26,340	28,086	26,143	15,268
Lime	4,027	3,082	3,801	5,897	4,362
Metal railway equipment	27,868	22,594	33,015	21,232	9,201
Steel and iron tubing	1,183	1,119	1,385	1,864	2,234
Steel and iron in bars, plates, etc.	8,464	12,348	13,709	15,877	12,238
Steel and iron manufactures	2,254	1,635	3,086	1,659	2,902
Electrical equipment, including motors, transformers, telephones, radios, refrigerators, etc.	924	770	937	795	267
Structural materials (not metal)	348	734	1,005	439	637
Railway equipment, (not metal)	5,261	4,084	8,050	-	14,372
Mineral manufactures, miscellaneous	2,523	4,834	3,914	3,273	1,943
Salt	4,741	9,061	4,633	4,086	4,756
Lumber	7,613	9,767	11,160	13,240	8,168
Wooden boxes, knocked down	1,726	2,463	3,884	3,837	3,254
Asphalt and bitumens	680	873	5,832	3,032	1,928
Petroleum	5,844	6,547	7,434	8,207	7,618
Lubricating oil	2,680	3,704	3,820	3,724	3,957
Gasoline	12,896	15,360	15,821	17,271	16,286
Textiles, cotton	6,590	7,851	5,861	7,032	5,277
Bags and bagging	4,162	4,428	4,002	3,631	3,520
Paper and lithographic materials	1,582	2,022	2,187	2,018	2,213
Spirituous liquors, wine, and beer ..... (Gallon)	2,591	2,040	2,897	3,136	2,844
Wheat flour	14,962	14,748	15,686	16,779	16,066
Rice, grain	17,377	16,286	20,519	24,916	12,581
Seafood, fresh or prepared	2,238	2,861	3,430	3,461	3,246
Potatoes	5,799	6,310	6,475	6,532	7,131
Onions	2,093	2,168	2,317	2,115	2,172
Vegetables, green	832	615	378	709	1,120
Vegetables and legumes, dried or otherwise conserved	168	250	211	270	205
Fruit, fresh	1,702	1,669	1,791	1,914	2,060
Fruit, dried or otherwise conserved	316	403	435	460	333
Milk, sterilized or conserved	1,346	1,702	1,986	1,938	1,535
Olive oil	1,013	958	1,184	1,426	1,288
Meat	552	515	606	729	727
Coffee	246	279	276	360	372
Total (except spirituous liquors, wine, and beer)	409,505	426,079	505,025	480,190	454,931

[1] Including state administered and chartered areas.

Estatística do Comércio Externo e da Navegação, Colónia de Moçambique.

FOREIGN TRADE

The foreign trade of the Colony consists of two distinct categories, namely, (a) the usual exports of domestic and nationalized[4] merchandise, and imports for consumption, and (b) transit trade, consisting of direct transit (foreign merchandise shipped directly through the Colony) and indirect transit or re-exports (primarily foreign goods shipped through the Colony for export or for consumption as ship's stores, without undergoing any material change other than sorting, grading, or repackaging). (See table 1.)

A large part of the export trade has been with Portugal, chiefly in cashew nuts, copra, sugar, peanuts, sisal, raw cotton, and tea. Between 25 and 30 percent of exports, by value, have gone to British Empire countries, consisting largely of cashew nuts and sugar to India, and peanuts, sugar, sisal, and copra to African colonies. This trade continued at about normal through the year 1940. Exports to other European areas, chiefly of copra, sisal, peanuts, and oil seeds, diminished from about 50 percent in 1936 to 5 percent in 1940. Mangrove bark, sisal, and sisal waste have been the main items exported to the United States (tables 5 and 6).

Industrial raw materials constitute the largest volume of imports. Portugal and the United Kingdom are the chief sources. As in the case of exports, the imports from these countries continued at approximately normal through 1940; those from other European areas dropped. Shipments from the United States increased sharply in 1940;

TABLE 8.–*Transit trade of Mozambique, 1939-40*

PRINCIPAL ITEMS		1939	1940
		Thousands	*Thousands*
Direct transit, including trans-shipment:[1]			
Crude metals	pounds	644,505	635,176
Manufactured metal articles	do.	199,048	108,452
Lumber	do.	381,971	307,621
Boxes, knocked down	do.	54,778	29,900
Chemical products	do.	119,104	119,054
Lubricating oils	do.	113,388	112,602
Petroleum	do.	47,776	37,678
Gasoline	do.	332,651	486,480
Foodstuffs	do.	71,619	60,880
Textiles	do.	56,571	26,127
Agricultural machinery and parts	do.	33,967	19,892
Sugar	do.	19,940	13,947
Spirituous liquors, wines, beer	do.	3,596	2,862
Other, including gold and silver in bars and coins	do.	999,459	1,526,338
Total quantity	do.	3,078,373	3,487,009
Total value	dollars	137,123	147,407
Indirect transit:[2]			
Coal	pounds	1,099,976	1,133,402
Ore	do.	428,994	427,590
Crude metals	do.	25,871	21,686
Manufactured metal articles	do.	10,496	6,844
Other	do.	116,509	323,833
Total quantity	do.	1,681,846	1,913,355
Total value	dollars	10,366	10,898

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[1] Direct, i.e., - foreign goods shipped directly through the Colony for distribution in the hinterland; transshipments, principally from the various parts of the Colony, with smaller lots from other countries, including Portugal, transshipped on the coast of Mozambique, for the account of either (1) foreign countries, or (2) other colonial ports.

[2] Merchandise entered through the customs and reexported without undergoing any material change other than sorting, grading, or repackaging.

Anuário Estatistico, Colónia de Moçambique.

[4] Goods imported, and processed within the Colony.

the principal items were lumber, lubricating oils, gasoline, kerosene, combustible oils, asphalt and bitumens, automotive equipment, and agricultural and industrial machinery (table 7).

This important source of revenue to the Colony reached a high of over 170 million dollars in 1938, but has since been curtailed by the dislocation in shipping services. Direct transit consists chiefly of crude metals and metal manufactures, lumber, petroleum products, chemicals, agricultural equipment, food items, and textiles. Coal and ore have been the largest items of indirect transit (table 8).

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

During the past decade the Colony of Mozambique has passed through a period of adaptation and reorganization, induced partly by the revitalized policy of Portugal, but even more by the increasing pressure of general economic forces.

The policy of closer commercial interdependence between the mother country and her colonies is being pursued. Portugal is strengthening her hold on the Mozambique market for consumer goods, and at the same time is taking an increasing proportion of the Colony's produce. Efforts are being made, by means of tariff preferences and reduced export duties, to encourage trade between the Portuguese colonies.

The government has gradually taken over the jurisdiction of the vast leased areas. It now appears that the land plan undertaken half a century ago was successful, not only in securing economic development of a backward country, but also in setting up an effective administration which the State government may utilize.

In the development of Mozambique the Portuguese government moved with caution rather than speed, and in its approach to the problem of the African native, little attempt was made to force western institutions on a race unprepared to understand them. Government has been effectively administered through the indigenous organizations of the natives themselves, under the jurisdiction of Portuguese officials. Native education has followed the policy of training for agriculture or a useful occupation, with the result that a contented native population evolved.

Agricultural progress has been retarded by economic influences not wholly determined by the natives themselves. The utilization of the labor supply to a large extent has been subordinated to the industrial needs of other parts of Africa, and the comparatively low native production may be attributed in no small measure to the absence of native workers.

By climatic conditions Mozambique is not fitted for large-scale white immigration, except in the southern districts and in regions of high altitudes. Therefore, any plan of expansion will need to take into account the numerous colored population which provides the nucleus from which the government may develop a productive native agricultural economy.

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BRITAIN CREATES CENTRAL PLANNING AUTHORITY . . . .

By Montell Ogdon*

Growing opinion in Great Britain in favor of central Government planning resulted in a recent declaration by the British Government that the principle of planning had been accepted as national policy. This was followed by the creation of a Ministry of Works and Planning. It is intended that the new Ministry created by this act should proceed upon a positive planning policy with respect to such matters as agriculture, industrial development, and transport. It will be of great significance to the United States and other countries, as well as to the United Kingdom, if the development of agriculture in the United Kingdom is planned along economic lines that would tend to modify materially the necessity of artificial restrictions upon imports of agricultural products.

DEVELOPMENT OF PLANNING POLICY

In the decade prior to the beginning of the present war there was much discussion in Great Britain favoring better utilization of land in the national interest. The opinion was widely expressed that there had been overdevelopment of industrial areas after the last war that had given rise to grave problems concerning not merely industry but also health, communications, and agriculture. It was pointed out that industry and housing were encroaching upon some of the best land in the country; and there was presentation of mounting evidence to show that much of the remaining agricultural land was not being operated efficiently.

In 1932 recognition of the need for planning was evidenced by Parliament's enactment of the Town and Country Planning Act. This act authorized local planning authorities to promote the development of local areas in accordance with town or country plans locally formulated.

There were, however, certain obstacles that precluded the development of the planning under the Town and Country Act that had been hoped for. The year 1932, in the first place, was an inauspicious time for the beginning of planning by local authorities, without considerable assistance. Approval and carrying out of projects under the act as drafted involved a procedure beset with administrative difficulties - and there was as yet no national planning authority to set up national standards for the local planners to follow, to help the local agencies over the obstacles, or to spur them on to constructive action. In the years following the enactment of the act there developed increased opinion in favor of central planning that would not permit land suitable for agriculture to be used for any other purpose and that would improve the efficiency of British agriculture.

The war has produced certain land use control measures of an emergency nature. Thus, under the Defence Regulations of August 25, 1939, the Minister of Agriculture and Fisheries was authorized to prevent the use of agricultural lands otherwise than for agriculture. The Minister was also given authority to issue such directions with respect to the cultivation, management, or use of agricultural land as he thought necessary or expedient for the purpose of increasing or maintaining the production in the United Kingdom of articles essential to the life of the community.

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In October 1940 the new Ministry of Works and Buildings was established, and the Emergency Appointments Act of 1939 was extended to the Minister to enable him to sit in the House of Commons. Lord Reith, an able protagonist of planned development, was made the Minister of Works and Buildings. Lord Reith himself must be accredited with laying the foundations for development of post-war planning in the United Kingdom. He concerned himself with the task of gathering competent planning personnel, of obtaining the services of universities and planning societies, of insuring the necessary authority for post-war planning, and finally of creating the machinery for translation of planning into reality.

On February 26, 1941, Lord Reith stated, in the House of Lords, as Minister of Works and Buildings, that the Government had authorized him in the preparatory work to proceed on certain assumptions; namely, (1) that the principle of planning would be accepted as national policy and that some central planning authority would be required; (2) that this authority would proceed on a positive policy for such matters as agriculture, industrial development, and transport; and (3) that some services would require treatment on a national basis, some regionally, and some locally.

A Consultative Panel established by Lord Reith drew up maps for planning, showing physical features, land uses, movement of population, and location of industries and communications. It drafted base maps for the whole country so that a coordinated series of maps would be available to planning authorities. It worked in consultation with the universities and other institutions on the matter of training personnel for planning work in order to have, if possible, the necessary skilled assistance to carry out the post-war plans.

An important stepping stone in the development of the present planning program has been the report to Lord Reith of the Committee on Compensation and Betterment. Under its terms of reference the committee was requested to analyze a problem that goes to the roots of the British property rights; namely, control over the use of land, and to advise as a matter of urgency what steps should be taken before the end of the war to prevent the work of reconstruction thereafter being prejudiced.

In its interim report this committee recommended[1] that in the legislation for the establishment of a central planning authority-

> provision should be made for vesting in that Authority the power of controlling building and all other developments throughout the whole country by reference to national planning considerations and with a view to preventing work being undertaken which might be prejudicial to reconstruction; such power to come into operation forthwith and to continue for some reasonable period * * * after the end of hostilities, while the broad lines of reconstruction are being worked out by or under the direction of such Authority.

A committee was appointed in October 1941-

> to consider conditions which should govern building and other constructional development in country areas consistently with the maintenance of agriculture and, in particular, factors affecting location of industry having regard to economic operation, part-time and seasonal employment, and the well-being of rural communities. [2]

On February 11, 1942, Lord Reith announced in the House of Lords that the conclusion had been reached by the Government that the best means of carrying out the pledge to establish a central planning authority was to establish a "Minister of Works and Planning."[2] Thus the British Government recognizes the importance of post-war planning and places the execution of post-war development in the United Kingdom definitely within the province of the National Government.

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[1] [Great Britain] Expert Committee on Compensation and Betterment. INTERIM REPORT TO THE RT. HON. LORD REITH OF STONEHAVEN... 18 pp. London. 1941.

[2] [Great Britain] House of Lords. CENTRAL PLANNING AUTHORITY. Parliamentary Debates, House of Lords, Off. Rpt. 121: 751-796. 1942.

PLANNING MACHINERY AND PROCEDURE

The Government's plans for pursuance of a national planning policy calls for a single ministry for the execution of planned development but for special machinery in the form of interdepartmental committees to cover the broader field of policy making in the realm of economic and social reconstruction.

Planning Act of June 2, 1942

The Ministry of Works and Planning Bill passed the House of Commons on June 2, 1942. It provides for the transfer to a Minister of Works and Planning of all the existing functions, property, rights, and liabilities of the Commissioners of Works, of the Commissioners of Public Works in Ireland, and of the existing Town and Country Planning functions of the Minister of Health. The dissolution of the superseded Commissions may be effected by Order in Council when it appears that they are no longer necessary.[3]

With the passage of the bill creating the new Ministry of Works and Planning the Government declares its intention of obtaining the enactment of additional legislation that will give the Minister necessary powers for effecting town and country planning. By creation of a planning minister the Government hopes to enthuse a new spirit in the public as to the Government's intentions regarding physical planning.

Interdepartmental Coordination Committees

In order to coordinate the work of other Departments that will be touched upon at many points in the development of national planning, the Ministry of Works and Planning will be assisted by a Committee of Senior Officials representing the Departments concerned. The main functions of this Committee will be to insure that the national policy of urban and rural development is carried out so far as possible as a single and consistent whole.

Questions of policy that cannot be settled by this committee of officials will be dealt with by a committee of the Ministers concerned, under the chairmanship of the Minister Without Portfolio, by virtue of his special responsibilities for reconstruction matters generally, and will be settled by them unless reference to the war cabinet is necessary.

Local Planning with National Direction

The Minister of Works and Planning will act in close association with and cooperate with local authorities in an effort to bring the requirements of national policies to the notice of local authorities and thus help to further national policy in the schemes that local authorities prepare.

There is transferred from the Minister of Health to the Minister of Works and Planning the powers that derived from the Town and Country Planning Act of 1932, which are essentially local powers. To local planning the Government is thus endeavoring to add a national concept. Under the Ministry of Works and Planning the local authorities will be called upon to plan their localities in the light of directives based on national considerations.

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[3] At the present time the Commissioners hold, construct, acquire, and manage all property in the United Kingdom required for the civil purposes of the central Government, except post office and telephone exchanges, which are vested in the Postmaster-General. These buildings are, however, built and equipped by the Commissioners of Works. They also exercise certain powers under the Defence Regulations, for example, power to requisition property and chattels or to do work on land.

It is not intended that the new Ministry should determine the plans for each town or county, but rather that the central planning ministry be designed to exercise a propulsive influence, to see that difficulties are overcome, to see that action is, in fact, taken. It is contemplated that the single central planning ministry in London should devolve parts of its authority upon the several defense areas or the equivalent below the local regional authority, consisting of groups of present local authorities that will carry out the actual work itself.

Lord Reith has acted to create effective collaboration of the various interests involved by working on a partnership basis with local government administrations. He declared: [4]

> We must have local initiative and the elements of national planning applied to localities, with the coordination of local plans fitting into a wider framework. We must therefore encourage further combinations of planning authorities over areas which demand planning as a unit. We must have experienced officers ready for consultation, and we therefore propose to set up on a small scale, and in urgent areas first, local offices for advice and help in the coordination of planning. We propose to ask individuals of standing, with experience in public administration, to promote cooperation between authorities in planning over wide areas and in contact with the various interests affected.

FUNCTION OF THE MINISTRY OF WORKS AND PLANNING

It is the function of the new Ministry of Works and Planning to consider from a national point of view both the wartime and the post-war needs - agriculture, transportation, strategic materials, and health, as well as location of industries. A member of the Government in debate on the bill declared-

> We must not allow our best agricultural land to be used for towns, as was done in one particular case after the last war. We must surely consider such questions as green belts and the preservation of the coast line.

It is the stated intention of the Government to weld into a single and consistent policy the activities of the various departments concerned in post-war reconstruction, including-

> the speedy provision of houses for those who need them, the re-development of devastated areas, the clearance of slums, the relief of overcrowding, the provision of all necessary public services, and the general promotion of rural development in the light of a positive policy for the maintenance of a healthy and well-balanced agriculture.

Though the plans being made for post-war planning require consideration of future problems, the Government purports not to forget the urgency of the present war effort. "Every plan will be based on sand," said the Joint Parliamentary Secretary to the Ministry of Works and Buildings in the House of Commons, "if it is not founded on decisive victory. Without victory, no plan has any meaning. But the victory must not find us unprepared."

The Ministry of Works and Planning Bill constitutes the first step in carrying out the Government's policy, the objective of which is to secure the right uses of the land of the country for all purposes. Among other objectives the Government will seek to avoid the diversion of productive agricultural land to other purposes if there is unproductive or less productive land that could reasonably be used for those purposes.

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[4] See column 757 of the reference cited in footnote 2.

The central planning authority will give advice to local authorities on the use of the land within their areas, taking into consideration all requirements of national policy. "If, for example, national policy requires that productive agricultural land shall not be needlessly used for other purposes, that requirement must be observed in local schemes."

A group of special assistants working with Lord Reith made a survey of the land resources and uses of the Nation to be used as a basis for determination of the main lines of land use. The committee on compensation and betterment on which the Government placed much emphasis in Parliamentary debates, has gone into the procedural problems involved in regulation of land use, and has made certain specific suggestions for dealing with the reconstruction problem. As regards undeveloped land the committee reported that it had under consideration the respective schemes advanced for acquisition by the Government of development rights of undeveloped land. "It may well be," said the committee, "that some such scheme provides a reasonable and practicable solution of the problem of betterment so far as affects undeveloped land, and a means whereby the use of undeveloped land can be regulated in accordance with national interests, so as to give effect to satisfactory town and country planning and at the same time to pay proper regard to such matters as the distribution of industry, the vital claims of agriculture, the preservation of open country, etc."

If the Government should decide to give effect to a scheme for acquisition of development rights on behalf of the Nation, as was suggested in the Report of the Royal Commission on the Distribution of the Industrial Population, it would mean, said the Committee, that from a specified date all the development rights of undeveloped land would be treated as vested in a national board or authority on behalf of the Nation. Henceforth no development would be possible without the authority of the Ministry of Works and Planning, or a board acting in close cooperation with it.

In order that persons concerned should not enter upon commitments in relation to undeveloped lands which they subsequently might be unable to carry out, the Committee announced that it should be known that a scheme for acquisition of development rights in the name of the Nation was under consideration. Pending the decisions of policy on acquisition of land, the Committee recommended that the controls over undeveloped land should be continued in force for a reasonable period after the end of hostilities, in addition to the powers over agricultural land exercisable under the Defence Regulations by the Minister of Agriculture and the Secretary of State for Scotland.

CONCLUSION

While the Ministry of Works and Planning Act creates the central ministerial machinery for planning and executing post-war development of urban and agricultural areas in the United Kingdom, it is stated by the Government that additional legislation with respect to reconstruction and land use will be necessary. The development of a domestic and foreign agricultural policy in the United Kingdom is still in the formative stages.

Development of either industrial or agricultural areas is obviously dependent upon the agricultural policy determined by the Government. The importance of such policy to both the United Kingdom and the British Dominions is widely recognized. The Federation of British Industries, for example, in its recent report on reconstruction calling upon the British Government for international economic collaboration in the post-war period pointed out the importance of British domestic agricultural policy on both home and overseas trade.

Each belligerent country in the present war must have an agricultural reconstruction policy of one kind or another, because each will be faced with the problem of what to do with the industries that have been developed and directed to meet wartime objectives. Each country has its choice of trying to keep overdeveloped industries alive by measures such as subsidies or prohibitions of imports, which in either case will make it difficult to produce efficiently, or of seeking to promote production that, in a broad sense, tends to bring about more efficient production and more efficient division of labor on a world-wide scale. The importance of the United Kingdom as a market for American and other specialized producers of agricultural commodities and the importance of foreign markets to British industry lend great significance to the announcement that the British Government is making plans for the general promotion of rural development in the light of a positive policy for the maintenance of a healthy and well-balanced agriculture.

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NEW REPORTS

MEDICINAL PLANTS OF TROPICAL AND SUBTROPICAL REGIONS,

by A. F. Sievers and E. C. Higbee. Foreign Agriculture Report No. 6

The botanical drugs used in the United States are obtained from many regions throughout the world. During periods of normal world trade the problem of securing the necessary supplies of such drugs causes little public concern and there is little general interest in developing new sources. Only during a widespread war, when the usual sources are not accessible do the possibilities of securing these products from new sources nearer home receive serious consideration. The United States obtains many drugs from remote tropical and subtropical Old World regions, the climatic conditions of which can be found in Central and South America. There is, therefore, a natural interest in the possibilities of introducing Old World species into those regions in the Western Hemisphere where conditions for them appear favorable and where their utilization as sources of useful products may be economically feasible. The species included in this discussion are largely limited to those native in or adapted to tropical and subtropical regions, but several with a wider range of adaptation are also included on account of their economic significance.

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